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ABSTRACT

Noting that previous study of child rearing patterns among Chinese parents has ignored the importance of the instrument measuring parenting style, this study used an instrument incorporating Chinese concepts of parenting and based on well-established parenting concepts to examine differences in the child rearing attitudes of mothers and grandmothers of 3- to 6-year-olds in Taiwan. Participating in the study were 53 grandmothers and 448 mothers randomly selected from 12 Taiwan kindergartens. The instrument used was the Maternal Parenting Style Questionnaire developed for this study and based on the constructs identified in Baumrind Parent Behavior Ratings. The findings revealed that although there were significant differences between the attitudes of grandmothers and mothers on parenting style, the attitudes of most grandmothers and mothers favored an authoritative parenting style over the authoritarian, permissive, and uninvolved styles. Grandmothers' parenting style was identified as more responsive than mothers' style. There were no generational differences in demandingness. A small sample size for the grandmothers may have contributed to the results of this study. (Contains 47 references.) (KB)

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A Comparison of Maternal Parenting Style Attitudes of Grandmothers and Mothers of Young Children in Taiwan: Development of a New Measure of Parenting Style

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Abstract

This stusy was designed specifically to answer the question: Are there differences between the attitudes of grandmothers and mothers concerning parenting styles?

The 501 valid subjects (included 53 grandmothers and 448 mothers) in this study were randomly selected from twelve kindergartens in Taiwan. The instrument used in the study was the Maternal Parenting Style Questionnaire (MPSQ) which was developed by the author based on the hypothetical construct of Baumrind's Parent Behavior Ratings.

Significant differences were found between the attitudes of grandmothers and mothers on four parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and uninvolved. Yet, the attitudes of most grandmothers and mothers favored a more authoritative parenting style than the other three parenting styles. Results indicated a significant difference between granmodthers and mothers with respect to responsiveness, but not demandingness. It was believed the small sample size of grandmothers might have affected the result.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare the attitudes about maternal parenting styles of grandmothers and mothers of children ages three to six years old in Taiwan. The author developed an instrument to assess maternal parenting style attitudes that were constructed using Chinese concepts of parenting by a researcher native to the country and familiar with the culture. This study was designed specifically to answer this question: Are there differences between the attitudes of grandmothers and mothers concerning parenting styles in Taiwan?

Literature Review

Since 1920, developmental psychologists have been interested in how parents influence the development of children's social and academic competence. One effort to answer this question was an investigation of parenting style (Darling, 1999).

Baumrind's Theory and Parenting Style

Baumrind began her childrearing research in 1959, using middle-class Caucasian parents and their preschool children from thirteen nursery schools in

Berkeley and Oakland, California. The research was based on parents' behavior (fathers and mothers) by using observation and interview. Over the past three decades, research in parenting style in the United States was based on Baumrind's (1966, 1968, 1971, 1989, 1996) four prototypes: authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and uninvolved. In 1989, Baumrind restated in her parenting typology the two orthogonal second-order factors of responsiveness and demandingness.

Authoritarian Parenting

Authoritarian parents represented high demanding and low responsive variables on Baumrind's scale. These parents attempted to shape, control and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of the children in accordance with a set standard of conduct, theologically motivated and formulated by a higher authority. They valued obedience as a virtue, favored punitive action, and used parental power to break their children's self-will (Baumrind, 1968, 1970, 1989).

Authoritative Parenting

The authoritative parenting style was the most adaptive approach to childrearing (Baumrind, 1996). Authoritative parents scored high on demandingness and responsiveness. The authoritative parents attempted to direct the children's activities but in a rational, issue-oriented manner. They

encouraged verbal give and take, and were responsive by providing love and support. In addition, they provided a stimulating as well as a challenging environment and were assertive but not intrusive and restrictive (Baumrind, 1970, 1989, 1991).

Permissive Parenting

Permissive parents were considered by Baumrind to be high responsive and low demanding. They were lenient, did not require mature behavior, encouraged the children's self-assertion, and avoided confrontation. They make few demands for household responsibility. They attempt to use reason, but not overt power to accomplish their goals (Baumrind, 1970, 1971, 1989).

Uninvolved Parenting

Uninvolved (rejecting-neglecting) parents scored low on demandingness and responsiveness. According to Maccoby and Martin (1983), uninvolved parents showed little commitment to their role as caregivers, and they were undemanding, indifferent, and rejecting. They neglected their childrearing responsibilities. Parents who fell into this category were highly rejecting, non-individualized and lack intellectual stimulation. In addition, they did not monitor their children's activities (Baumrind, 1989).

Table 1 shows the two orthogonal second-order factors in Baumrind parenting style.

Table 1

The Two Orthogonal Second-Order Factors in Baumrind Parenting Style

	High Responsive	Low Responsive
High Demanding	Authoritative	Authoritarian
Low Demanding	Permissive	Rejecting-Neglecting

Responsiveness

Baumrind (1996) defined responsiveness as the way in which parents encouraged individuality and self-assertion. They did this by being attuned and supportive of their children's needs and demands. Important aspects of responsiveness included warmth, reciprocity, clear communication, and person-centered discourse and attachment (Baumrind, 1996). Warmth referred to a parent's emotional expressiveness of love. Reciprocal behavior was an exchange between parents and their children and referred to the extent to which the parents took into account the wishes and feelings of their children (Baumrind, 1989). Person-centered discourse between the parents and their children produced changes in thought and action for both parties. For clear communication, parents used their power with reason to communicate with

their children (Baumrind, 1996).

Demandingness

Demandingness, on the other hand, was defined by Baumrind (1996) as that which parents require of children by their expectations, supervision, disciplinary efforts, and willingness to confront disputative behavior. Important aspects of demandingness include confrontation, monitoring, and consistent, contingent discipline (Baumrind, 1996). Confrontation referred to a parent's use of power with reason rather than punishment when children oppose the parent. The parent's direct but rational confrontation, encouraged rational give and take rather than provoking opposition. Monitoring referred to the parent's ability to provide an orderly and safe environment for the children (Baumrind, 1989). Parental control associated with consistent, contingent discipline. Contingent discipline referred to the use of positive or negative reinforcers immediately following desired or prohibited child behavior. The parent intended to orient the children towards goals as selected by the parent. Control strategies included modifying expression of immature, dependent, hostile behavior and promoting compliance with parental standards (Baumrind, 1996).

Cultural Values of Chinese Childrearing

Paradox

Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, and Fraleigh (1987), based on high school student's self-report to parenting attitudes and behaviors, found that Asian, black, and Hispanic families were higher on the authoritarian index than were white families. Steinberg, Dornbusch, and Brown (1992), using self-report questionnaires to study the adolescent achievement and parenting practice, also stated that authoritarian parenting was prevalent in Asian-American homes. Chiu (1987), in her cross-cultural study of childrearing attitudes, reported that the Chinese mothers were most restrictive, and the Chinese-American (immigrated) mothers were more likely to approve the expression of hostility or rejection as recorded on the questionnaire. According to Wei (1997), many researchers believed that Chinese parents frequently used impulse control, conducted physical punishment, and discouraged children from being independent, active, or exploratory.

From the above characteristics, the Chinese childrearing pattern could be categorized as "authoritarian" parenting. Authoritarian parenting which was associated with the Chinese parenting style was found to be related to poor school achievement among samples of European-American children. But contrary to this finding, Chinese students had performed quite well in school (Chao, 1994; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Steinberg et al., 1992). Dornbusch et al.

(1987, p. 1256) concluded that "Asian children in our public schools cannot be adequately explained in terms of the parenting style we have studied."

Studies of Chinese Parenting style

Many researchers conducted studies on parenting style and tried to solve this paradox or tried to find a new interpretation. The investigations reported by some authorities indicated that the relationship between school performance and Chinese parenting style, although it tended to be more authoritarian, should be interpreted in accordance with cultural differences (Chao, 1993 & 1994; Chiu, 1987; Chung, 1994; Lin, 1988; Lin & Fu, 1990; Olsen, 1971). In American culture, strictness or control was sometimes equated with manifestations of parental hostility, aggression, mistrust, and dominance (Kim & Chun, 1994). Yet, in Asian culture, parental control might not always involve domination of the children, but rather a more organizational type (authority, obedience and some strictness) of control for the purpose of fostering family harmony (Lau & Cheung, 1987). Chao (1993, 1994) pointed out that in traditional Chinese culture, the term "control" meant caring, loving, and governing.

Baumrind (1996) accepted Chao's point of view and agreed that the cultural context should be considered when categorizing the parenting style.

She indicated that the concept of "training" had important features beyond the hierarchical authoritarian model. Because of the mother's high involvement and the feature of respect for authority and emphasis on education, the Chinese ideal of training included high achievement and conformity demands in a context of intrusive control and devoted sacrifice. Baumrind stated that "a childrearing pattern that would be categorized as authoritarian and deemed undesirable from an emic (outsider's) Western perspective, when viewed from an etic (insider's) cultural perspective, has special features that explain its positive association with high achievement in Chinese children" (Baumrind, 1996, p. 409).

These studies had stressed that Chinese culture its own point of view about control or training, as well as authoritarian parenting style, and that this cultural difference was effective and accounts for the positive performance of Chinese children in the academic environment. But these studies might have forgotten the influence of an important variable – the testing instrument itself.

Chinese Studies of Generational Differences in Parenting

The study of Chinese generational differences had lagged. Ho and Kang (1984) conducted two studies in Hong Kong comparing the differences of parenting attitudes between mothers and grandmothers and fathers and

grandfathers. The results showed that there were intergenerational differences between father and grandfathers but not between mothers and grandmothers in paternal or maternal roles and attitudes. Ho and Kang (1984) concluded that the fathers involved in caring for children made important changes in child-training attitudes and practices toward a reduction in authoritarianism. Yet, attitudes and behaviors of mothers and grandmothers continued to show a high degree of traditional conservatism.

Olsen published two studies in 1971 and 1976. These described childrearing and the role of grandmothers and mothers in Taiwan. One hundred and seven mothers and grandmothers of sixth grade children were interviewed about their childrearing attitudes and practices (Olsen, 1971). Compared to the mothers, grandmothers showed more conformity to traditional socialization attitudes. The grandmother's authority was over the mother's.

Olsen's next study (1976) examined the role of grandmothers in Taiwan. She found that the children's own mothers still were considered to be the primary child caretakers, but other family members were frequently called into service. The children's grandmothers participated as much or as little as they chose, and regardless of the amount of actual care, grandmothers gave

a source of childrearing advice. The grandmothers in Taiwan might play two important roles in the process of family socialization: first as an authority figure, and second, as an alternate caretaker.

O-Yang (1997) used a survey in Taiwan to measure the relationship between childrearing style and attachment for adolescence and their mothers. Both adolescent and mother completed the "Mother's Childrearing Style" and "My Experience Inventory". The results stated that mothers' childrearing styles were significantly correlated with adolescence' childrearing styles. In addition, mothers' childrearing styles were intergenerationally transmitted to adolescence' childrearing styles.

Why Develop A New Instrument?

Many cross-cultural studies of parenting style which included the Chinese population (Chao, 1992; Chiu, 1987; Kelley & Tseng, 1992; Leung, Lau, & Lam, 1998; Lin, 1988; Lin & Fu, 1990) and studies which included only the parenting style of Chinese people in Taiwan (Chen, 1998; Wang, 1994; Wu, 1996), used already-developed instruments. Researchers consistently used previously-developed parenting scales to measure parenting style in cross-cultural or local studies. These scales were developed by Western researchers. Phillips, Xion, Wang, Gao, Wang, and Zhang (1991) explained, "all

psychometric instruments developed in the West have an ethnocentric bias because items in preliminary versions of the instruments are written using Western concepts and selection of items for final versions is based on the results of studies that use Western subjects (p. 369)." Even in cross-cultural studies, the instruments had not been modified. It appeared that this change was important and had a significant bearing on research results. In summary, parenting style instruments should be modified and carefully translated when making comparisons between Western and non-Western cultures.

Lin (1995) compiled four parenting instruments from Western countries (Baumrind, 1967; Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979; Peeris, Jacogsson, Lindstronm, Von Knorring, Peeris, 1980; Robert, Block, Block, 1984) and four parenting instruments modified by the researchers in Taiwan (Chu, 1986; Tsu, 1975; Wang, 1993; Wu, 1989). However, Lin's parenting instrument did not use all of Baumrind's parenting concept. Taiwan needed an instrument to assess maternal parenting style attitudes that were constructed using Chinese concepts of parenting by a researcher native to the country and familiar with the culture. The instrument needed to also closely follow Baumrind concepts and ideas regarding parenting style. Therefore, the researchers who were from Western society or Taiwan could have a scientific discussion about parenting

styles which based on the Baumrind's theory. It was believed that an instrument of this nature could provide more meaningful information and help resolve the previously noted paradox.

In the present study, the author focused on the differences between the two generations for the following reasons: 1). Research studies indicating the tendency toward authoritarian in Chinese parenting were conducted over ten years ago (Chiu, 1987; Ho & Kang, 1984; Lin, 1988; Lin & Fu, 1990; Olsen, 1971 & 1976). 2). Several recent studies of Chinese parenting had concluded that Chinese parents did not display an authoritarian parenting attitudes or behaviors (Chen, 1998; Liou, 1997; Wu, 1996). It seemed as if differences in parenting style had emerged between the two generations and the attitudes of beliefs about parenting style had changed.

Methods

The instrument used in this study was the Maternal Parenting Style Questionnaire (MPSQ) which was developed by the author based on the hypothetical construct of Baumrind's Parent Behavior Ratings (Baumrind, 1971). A principal components analysis (Hotelling, 1933) was used, followed by varimax rotation. The total reliability of the MPSQ had a Cronbach alpha of .82

and a split-half reliability of .76. The first factor, responsiveness, had 39 items with a Cronbach alpha of .92 and a split-half reliability of .87. The second factor, demandingness, had 19 items with a Cronbach alpha of .79 and a split-half reliability of .80. The factor loading of items in responsiveness and demandingness were on table 2 and the items of statements in responsiveness and demandingness were on table 3. The two factors, responsiveness and demandingness, were equal to the two components of Baumrind's parenting style. The MPSQ had construct validity as drawn from the literature. The item sample which had highest factor loading of responsiveness was as follow□ *I should encourage my child to had intimate verbal contact with me.* The item sample which had highest factor loading of demandingness was as follow□ *I should tell my child he (she) must obey me.*

The Ward's Cluster analysis method (Ward, 1963) with the interval of Squared Euclidean distance was used to separate the different clusters of parenting style attitudes for grandmothers and mothers. Then, using the Chi-Square test compare the differences of parenting style attitudes between grandmothers and mothers in Taiwan. Using MANOVA to compare the differences of responsiveness and demandingness between grandmothers and mothers. If the result was significant in MANOVA, then

the ANOVA was adjusted using the Bonferroni method (□ = .05 / 2) to test either responsiveness or demandingness, or both—whichever caused the significant differences (Johnson, 1998).

Data

The subjects in this study were randomly selected from twelve kindergartens in Kaohsiung City (the second largest district in Taiwan) and Taitong County (the second smallest district in Taiwan). The 521 valid subjects included 53 grandmothers, 448 mothers, and 20 unidentified subjects. Grandmothers and mothers were not from the same families because the purpose of the investigation was to compare the generational differences, not familial differences. The descriptive statistics data of demographic variables were on table 4 and the Pearson correlations of demographic variables were on table 5.

Results□ Discussion and Conclusion

Results

1. Four clusters of maternal parenting style were produced from the cluster analysis. Of the total, 19% evidenced an authoritarian parenting style

attitudes, 38% showed an authoritative parenting style attitudes, 28% a permissive, and 15% an uninvolved parenting style attitudes.

2. Significant differences were found between grandmothers and mothers on four parenting styles attitudes ($\square_2 = 7.834$; $p = .05$; $df = 3$). For the total, 50.9% (n = 27) of grandmothers demonstrated an authoritative parenting style attitudes, 32.2% (n = 17) showed permissive parenting style attitudes, 9.4% (n = 5) an authoritarian style, and 7.5% (n = 4) of grandmothers displayed an uninvolved parenting style attitudes. Mothers differed. Specifically, 37.1% (n = 166) of mothers displayed an authoritative parenting style attitudes, 26.9% (n = 121) showed a permissive style attitudes, 19.9% (n = 89) an authoritarian, and 16.1% (n = 72) of mothers displayed an uninvolved style attitudes. The percentage of authoritative parenting style attitudes was greater in grandmothers. An authoritarian parenting style was displayed more often in mothers. It was believed the small sample size of grandmothers might have affected the result. However, both grandmothers and mothers were in favor of authoritative parenting style attitudes as opposed to the other three parenting attitudes.

3. Results indicated a significant difference between grandmothers and mothers with respect to responsiveness, but not demandingness, ($F = 7.62$,

$p < .05$; $df = 2$). This result proved that the grandmothers' parenting style was more responsive.

4. Martin, Halverson, and Hollett-Wright conducted the intergenerational research in the U.S., in 1991, and the result showed that the grandmothers perceived children as immature individuals and more often supported specific rules for appropriate behaviors; grandmothers were demanding and non-responsive. In addition, Martin et al. Found that the grandmothers expressed less nurturance and more control than did the mothers which meant that the grandmothers were more demanding than the mothers. Olsen (1992) also indicated that "nurturing" and "restrictiveness" were similar between grandmothers and their grown daughters. Therefore, their results were not supported in this study.

Cohler, Grunebaum, Weiss, and Moran (1971) using the Maternal Attitude Scale (MAS) to compare mothers and their own mothers, stated that their own mothers showed more adaptive attitudes to competence in perceiving and meeting the children's needs. Cohler et al. (1971) also indicated that mothers were believed stronger than their own mothers in regard to encouragement of reciprocity and appropriate closeness. The results of this study did not agree with these Western studies. In addition, the results were not comparable with

any other similar studies conducted in Taiwan.

5. Several possible reasons could explain why grandmothers indicated more responsiveness. The first possible reason was that grandmothers were more patient, willing to communicate with young children, and able to express their nurturing better to young children. Perhaps they learned from their past mistakes and experiences. Second, it was possible that their physiological development had allowed them to attain great patience as compared to mothers. If this was the case, then grandmothers were more likely to comfort the young children and to be responsive than mothers. Third, the grandmothers might take care of the children only at limited times. They would like to express more responsiveness and less demandingness, because the parents are responsible for discipline. Grandmothers desired pleasant experiences with their grandchildren. The forth possible reason that grandmothers indicated more responsiveness was because those grandmothers who were more responsive to children were more likely to respond to the questionnaire.

It is important to point out, however, that the small sample size of grandmothers might have affected the study results.

Conclusions

1. It might be concluded that the study made a contribution in the

development of a new instrument, maternal parenting style (MPSQ) for the people in Taiwan. Previous studies had used instruments developed by Western researchers and indicated that Chinese parents were in favor of authoritarian parenting style. This study, using the new instrument, showed that there were over two times more display of authoritative parenting style attitudes (38%) as compared with authoritarian parenting style attitudes (19%). The Chinese maternal parents did not have more authoritarian parenting style attitudes when measured by the instrument developed by the author. In addition, the MPSQ was a new instrument to measure maternal parenting style attitudes in Chinese society.

2. Several research studies which showed the tendency of the Chinese toward authoritarian parenting were conducted over ten years ago (Chiu, 1987; Ho & Kang, 1984; Lin, 1988; Lin & Fu, 1990; Olsen, 1971 & 1976). Several recent studies of Chinese parenting indicated that the Chinese parents were not prone to authoritarian parenting style (Chen, 1998; Liou, 1997; Wu, 1996). According to the most recent studies, the younger generation seems to be in favor of authoritative parenting style than the elder. However, from the results, a higher percentage of grandmothers displayed authoritative parenting style attitudes compared to the mothers. In addition, grandmothers were more

responsive compared to the mothers. It is important to point out, however, that the small size of grandmothers might have affected the study results.

Scientific Importance of the Study

The instrument used in this study provided different results from studies reported by Western researchers. The results of this study will contribute to future research on parenting style attitudes use instruments developed by members of that particular culture, which should provide more meaningful results.

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Table 2

The Factor Loading of Items in Responsiveness and Demandingness

Item	Factor Loading in Responsiveness	Item	Factor Loading in Demandingness
60	.715	6	.682
47	.684	31	.660
55	-.676	18	.595
64	-.653	53	-.594
25	-.637	52	-.581
17	.598	58	.491
27	.597	37	-.484
46	.585	44	.480
19	.580	12	.474
59	.574	63	-.461
14	-.570	5	.440
36	.563	42	.481
15	.562	51	-.400
54	-.560	45	.398
22	-.552	38	.391
7	.545	24	-.372
34	-.527	35	-.363
10	-.514	28	.313
62	-.511	56	-.312
16	.502		
2	.494		
48	.493		
23	-.467		
20	.462		
30	.459		
26	-.455		
39	-.433		
61	-.428		
32	.426		
40	.422		
33	.421		
4	.420		
13	-.395		
9	-.388		
8	-.387		
41	.379		
1	.373		
49	-.374		
3	.333		

Table 3

The Items of Statements in Responsiveness and Demandingness

Statements in Responsiveness
60. I should encourage my child to had intimate verbal contact with me.
47. I should actively talk to my child and encourage him (her) to talk to me.
55. I do not need to encourage my child to talk to me.
64. I do not need to encourage my child to had intimate verbal contact with me.
25. I do not need to listen to my child's comments.
17. When my child asks me questions based on his (her) curiosity, I should answer them patiently.
27. When my child talks to me, I should listen and give responses.
46. I should ask opinions of my child.
19. I should listen to my child's comments.
59. I should encourage my child to develop his (her) own individuality.
14. I believe I should not maintain a calm manner when I discipline my child.
36. I think a child should be given comfort when he (she) was scared or upset.
15. When my child was afraid of the dark, I should comfort him (her).
54. I should not encourage my child to express opinions.
22. When my child talks to me, I do not really need to pay attention and I give no response.
7. I believe I should be calm when I discipline my child.
34. When my child asks me to hug him (her), I should ignore him (her).
10. When my child asks me questions based on his (her) curiosity, I do not need to answer them.
62. I do not think my child was responsible for his (her) own behavior.
16. I should stop my child if he (she) displays obstructive behavior, such as, teasing other people.
2. I believe that an intellectually stimulating home was one of the most Important ingredients I could provide for the welfare of my child. This Includes such things as toys and books which could improve my child's Intellectual development.
48. Even if my child postpones cleaning up his (her) toys, I should repeat the rules and remain patient.
23. I should not ask my child to sit on his (her) chair and use chopsticks or a spoon during dinnertime.
20. When I ask my child to eat vegetables, I should explain the reasons.
30. I should ask my child to sit on his (her) chair and use chopsticks or a spoon during dinnertime.
26. I do not think I need to explain the reasons when I ask my child to eat vegetables.
39. When my child disobeys me, I do not need to explain the reasons for my orders in further detail.

61. When I am displeased, I don't think I need to comfort my crying child.
32. I should encourage my child to display self-assertion.
40. When my child asks me to hug him (her), I should do it.
33. I should remind myself not to be annoyed or impatient when my child disobeys.
4. I think my child was responsible for his (her) own behavior.
13. When disciplining my child, I should point out what was right or wrong but do not need to explain the reasons.
9. I do not care that my child displays obstructive behavior.
8. When my child was afraid of the dark, I do not need to comfort him (her).
41. I demand my child dress his (her) self.
2. I think my child should share family responsibilities, such as setting the table and taking out newspapers.
49. I think that my child does not know how to clean up, so I do it.
3. I should set limitations for TV or video games for my child, such as, when and what he (she) could watch on TV or play on video games.

The Item of Statements in Demandingness

6. I should tell my child he (she) must obey me.
31. When my child defies me, I should punish him (her).
18. When my child refuses to do what I ask, he (she) should not be allowed to get away with it.
53. My child should be allowed to refuse my requests and commands.
52. I should not force my child to take orders.
58. If my child questions my decisions, I should let him (her) know who was in charge.
37. I should allow my child to disobey me.
44. I should show my disobedient child that I am stronger than he (she) was.
12. When my child was too noisy in the living room, I should stop his (her) play.
63. I should not expect my child to obey just for the sake of obedience.
5. I should take action the very first time my child disobeys me.
42. I should ask my child to read everyday.
51. I should back down when my child does not follow my directions.
45. I should expect my child to obey my orders.
38. I should teach my child that parents always know what was best.
24. I should not punish my child even if he (she) defies me.
35. I should not ask my child to read everyday.
28. I should set clear learning goals for my child, such as, expecting my child to be able to read a simple book by age six.
56. I believe that scolding, criticism and spanking cannot help my child to improve.

The Item of Statements Not Related to Responsiveness or Demandingness

57. I believe parents should had many well-established rules for discipline.

11. I should discuss my expectation with my child if he (she) was defiant.
50. I believe parents do not need to set rules for discipline.
43. I think children should learn to calm down by themselves when they were scared or upset.
21. If my child stands right in front of me and breaks his (her) own toys intentionally, I should hide my anger.
29. I should ask my child to lay on bed at bedtime even though he (she) does not want to sleep.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics Data of Demographic Variables

Variables	n	Mean	SD
Child's age	503	4.50	.93
Child's gender	517	1.49	.50
Boy	265		
Girl	253		
Subjects	521		
Grandmother	53		
Mother	448		
Unidentified	20		
If subject was grandmother,	162		
Mother's age	155	33.39	5.48
Mother's birth order	162	1.98	.79
Subject's age	505	36.64	8.96
Grandmother	51	55.69	8.71
Mother	436	34.4	5.99
Education	516	4.13	.95
Grandmother	51	2.94	1.27
Mother	446	4.25	.81
Family income	499	2.54	1.09
Grandmother	48	2.08	1.16
Mother	432	2.60	1.07
Family structure	511	2.71	1.09
Grandmother	51	3.12	1.10
Mother	441	2.66	1.04
Number of adults	518	2.78	1.23
Caring hours	491	3.95	1.31
Working hours	475	2.65	1.37
Age of understanding	496	5.39	2.81
Grandmother	51	5.70	2.72
Mother	428	5.36	2.81
Birth order	519	1.96	.94

Table 5

Pearson Correlations of Demographic Variables

	A1	A2	A3	A3i	A3ii	A4	A5
A1							
A2	.079						
A3	.055	.053					
A3i	.080	-.020	-.008				
A3ii	.009	.049	.207**	.002			
A4	.099*	-.050	-.594**	.090	-.110		
A5	-.242**	-.029	.376**	.079	.102	-.343**	
A6	-.281**	-.067	.098*	.104	.040	-.030	.469**
A7	.125**	.095*	-.107*	-.109	-.092	.061	-.170**
A8	.068	.060	-.198**	-.186*	-.177*	.097*	-.220**
A9	.092*	.013	.151**	.028	.019	-.184**	.035
A10	-.138**	.029	.042	.051	.171*	.028	.077
A11	.160**	.114*	-.034	-.069	-.103	.066	-.179**
A12	.014	-.038	-.008	.231**	.110	.118**	-.065

Table 5 Continued

	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	A11	A12
A1							
A2							
A3							
A3i							
A3ii							
A4							
A5							
A6							
A7	-.071						
A8	-.093*	.714**					
A9	-.059	-.053	-.047				
A10	.183**	-.014	-.050	-.142**			
A11	-.153**	.052	.042	.033	-.058		
A12	.039	-.036	-.045	.103*	-.050	.084	

Note. *. Correlation was significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation was significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
A1 = child's age; A2 = child's gender; A3 = subject; A3i = if subject was grandmother, the age of the child's mother; A3ii = if subject was grandmother, the birth order of the child's mother; A4 = the age of subject; A5 = the educational attainment; A6 = family income; A7 = family structure; A8 = number of adults lived with the child; A9 = number of hours of caring the child; A10 = number of hours of working outside; A11 = the age of understanding; A12 = the birth order of the child.

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